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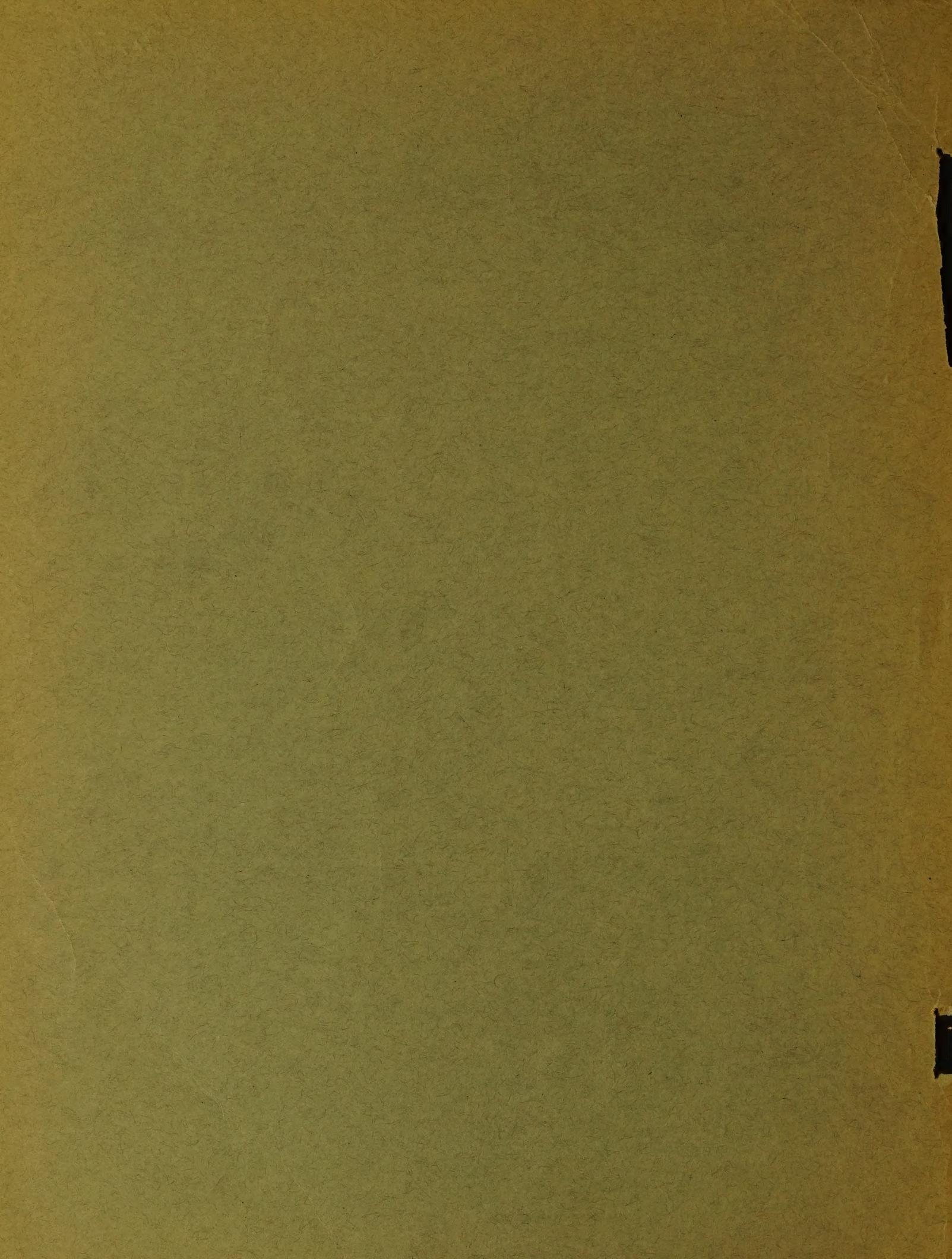
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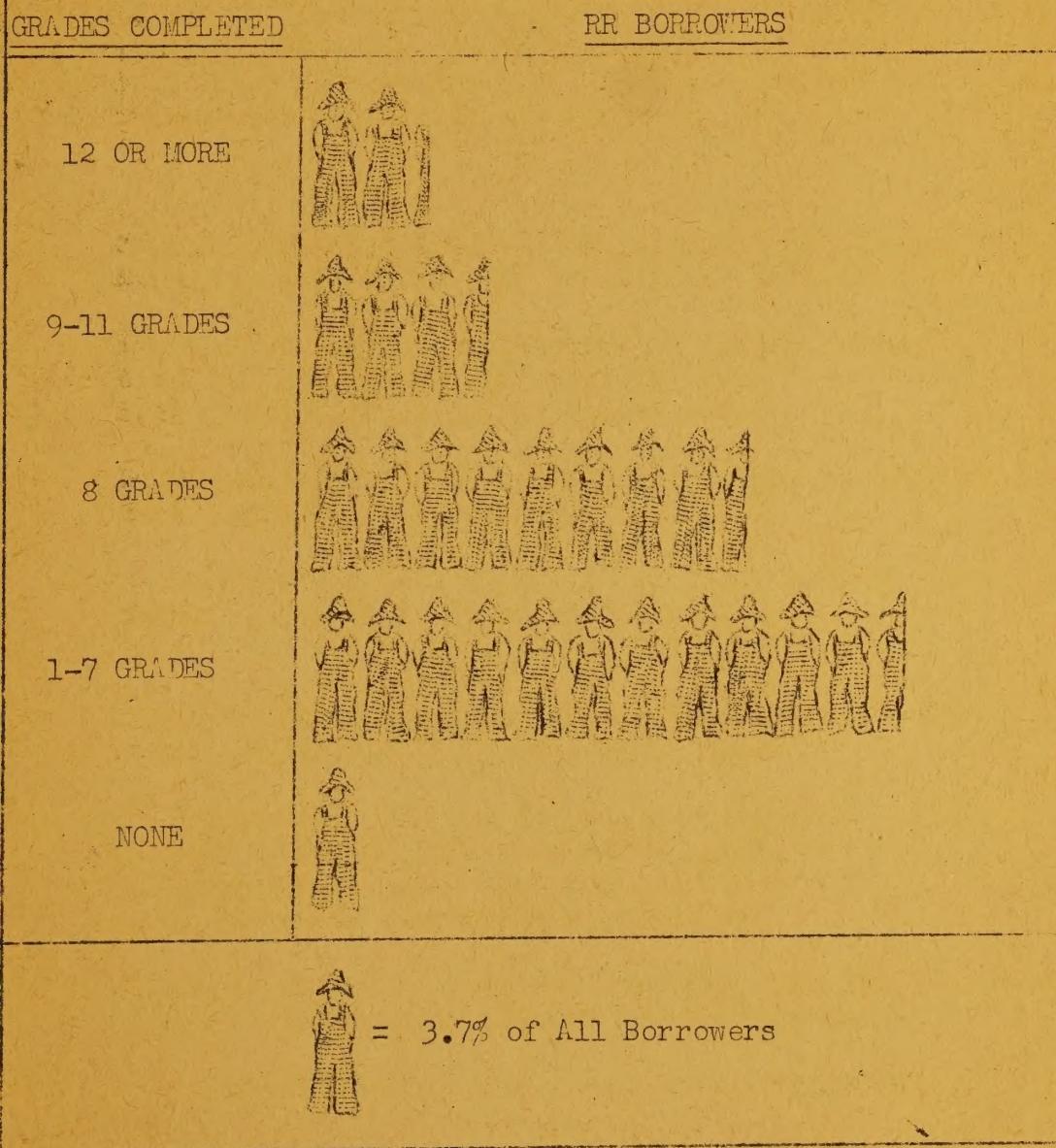
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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

~~CONFIDENTIAL~~PROGRAM ANALYSIS REPORT RR-20
(FOR ADMINISTRATIVE USE ONLY)THE RURAL REHABILITATION PROGRAM AND RURAL EDUCATIONGRADES FINISHED BY RR BORROWERS

Planning and Analysis Section
Rural Rehabilitation Division
March 1, 1942

INTRODUCTION

It is tragic to realize how little thousands upon thousands of people in this Nation can contribute to the defense of their country simply because their country failed to come to their defense against the aggression of ignorance.

Workers in the Farm Security Administration have seen for many years what lack of education and training has done to the security and well-being of rural people. Today, everyone can see what FSA has seen for so long. Unskilled, untrained farm people stand idly by while their country calls for more workers with quick minds, deft fingers, and mechanical abilities.

It is the purpose of this report to bring into focus a few facts about the lack of education in rural areas and how it ties in with the problems that FS is trying to help work out. In a later report some suggestions will be made on what might be done about education for low-income farm families.

On this report, in order to facilitate a breakdown of data on an area basis, the following FSA Regions and States were grouped together:

Northeast: Region I (Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont)

Midwest: Regions II and III (Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Missouri, Ohio)

Great Plains: Regions VII and X (Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Colorado, Montana, Wyoming)

West: Regions IX and XI (Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, New Mexico)

South: Regions IV, V, VI and VIII (Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Texas)

Sources of all data used are included in the footnotes which are in the back of the report, following page 22.

Further references may be found in the appendix which follows the footnotes.

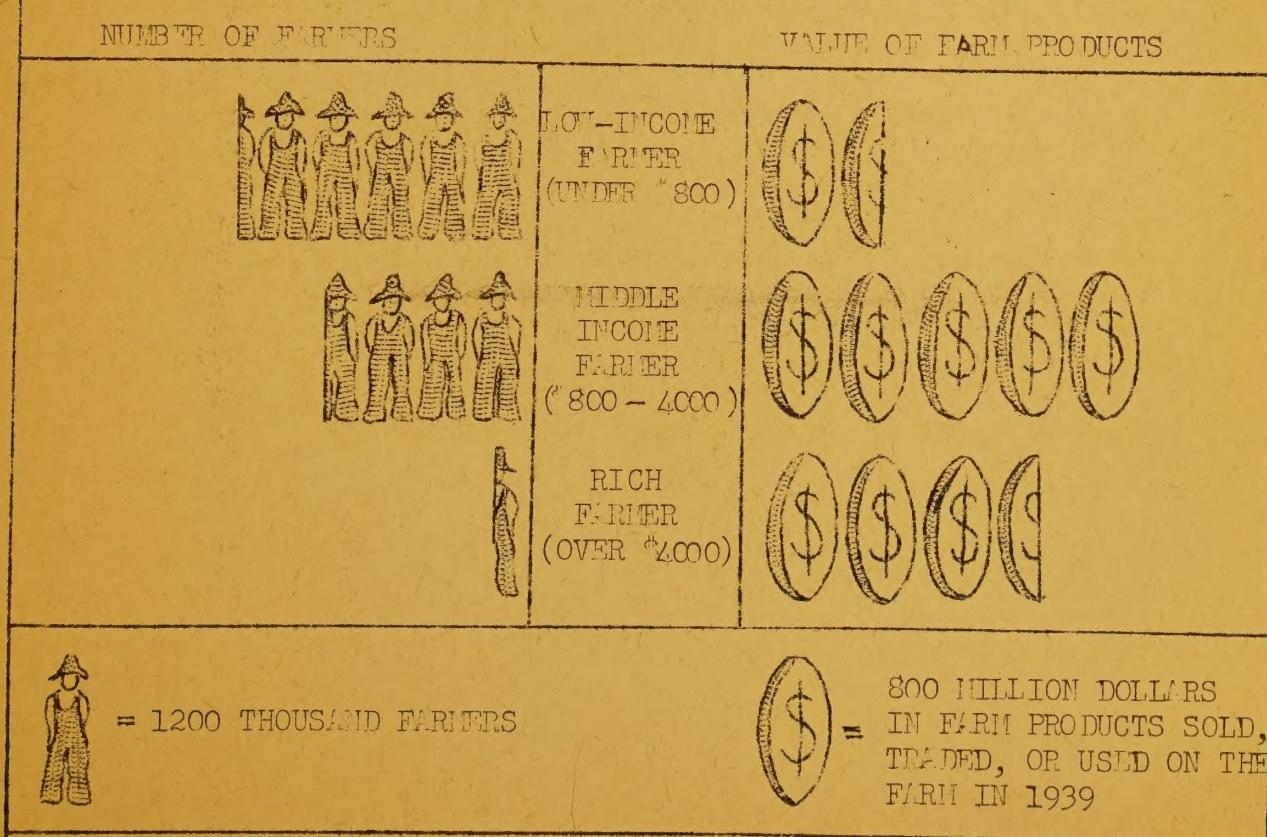
THE RURAL REHABILITATION PROGRAM AND RURAL EDUCATION

Low income in rural areas is often spot-lighted as FSA's Number One problem. From it, analysts have said, come all the complexities which pile obstacles in the path of rehabilitation. We have been told that the job of improving the habits of living and the levels of living of FSA families depends on our getting a better insight into the intricacies of their problems. But in the persistent scrambling and probing for the problems, some of the more positive assets of FSA families may have been overlooked...assets on which a program could be built. For example, just what is the great common asset that all FSA families have to work with? How can such an asset be used to further a program of rehabilitation?

From area to area, from community to community, and from family to family, the material assets of tillable land, tools and equipment, housing, livestock, water, and adequate tenure have been appraised and evaluated as a part of the RR program, but the most common of all assets existing among FSA families - their own labor - has often been neglected and underrated. Family labor is not the only prevalent asset in low income areas, but it is the most significant asset because it has the most potentialities.

When labor is applied skilfully and persistently to resources which the low-income family has (or which FSA can help make available), it can result in a level of living far higher than the bare scratchings of subsistence. The deciding factor is the ability to produce. (See Figure 1)

FIGURE 1: RELATION OF FARM POPULATION TO FARM PRODUCTION 1/



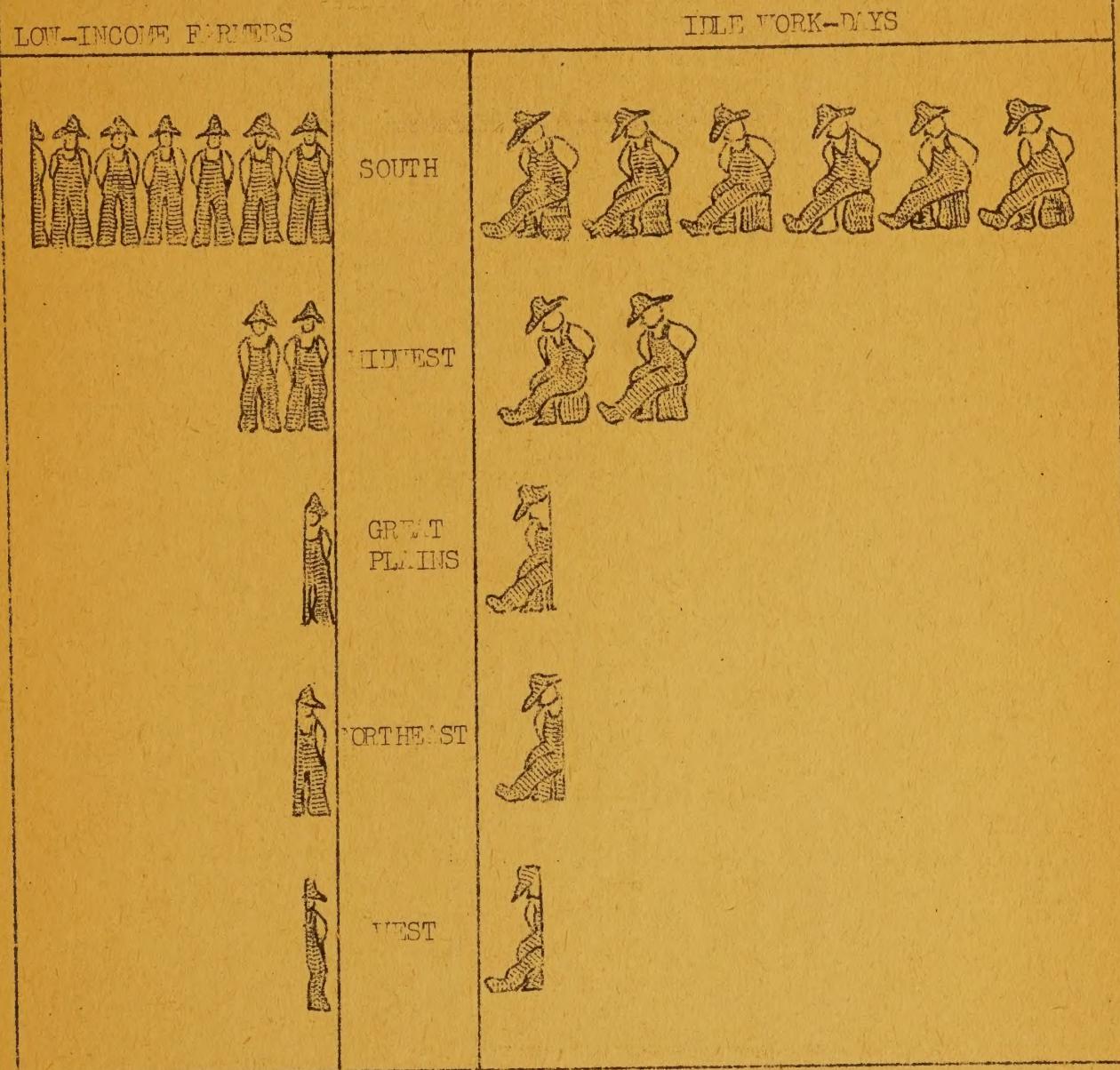
How skilfully and how many work days during the year FSA families apply their greatest asset their labor, to their farm resources will usually have a direct bearing on their production, on their incomes, and therefore, on the probable success or failure of their rehabilitation. If the common denominator to all FSA families is rural poverty, the great common asset is family labor.

The National Resources Planning Board has said the same thing in listing "skills and productivity" as essential to any plan for "up-building" America.² The implication is clear. If, on a low-income farm, the family is able to use its labor skilfully and persistently, the outlook is good. If, on the other hand, there are extended periods when the family's labor and the family's tools are idle, they will be that much further from the goal of rehabilitation. When the low-income farm becomes a whole area, the implication becomes even more obvious. To the extent that the area does not use its labor skillfully and well, it puts a ceiling on the ability of its families to produce for themselves or for other families. In that sense, it becomes a drain on healthier areas, and saps national vitality.

The 1940 Census points out that one out of four farms in the United States have less than 30 acres ... considerably less than full-time farm units. If families living on such units were to depend on incomes from farming alone, the result would be a poverty level coupled with idle family labor. How many of those same families find any significant amount of off-farm work?

According to the Census, only one out of ten low-income farmers have more than 100 days off-farm employment. In other words, the total work days on the farm and the total work days off-the-farm could not add up to anything like a full work year for many rural families. Variations in under-employment of low-income farmers run all the way from the half million sharecroppers who work at less than their capacity to the so-called "full-time" low-income farmers who lack enough farm resources to provide a full year's work.³ A comparison of under-employment on farms by areas and the size of incomes produced in the same areas indicates, moreover, a direct relationship. (See Figure 2)

FIGURE 2: RELATION BETWEEN INACTIVITY ON THE FARM AND NUMBER OF LOW-INCOME FARMERS BY AREAS 4/



10% OF THE LOW-INCOME FARMERS IN THE U.S. (LESS THAN \$800 GROSS EARNED INCOME)



48 MILLION MAN-DAYS OF FARM LABOR ON LOW-INCOME FARMS AFTER FARM NEEDS HAVE BEEN MET.



As if to supplement this contention, the Census further shows that there are far more low-income farmers today than there were a decade ago.⁵

Until now, the long-time forces behind idle farm labor have been greater than the forces working for rehabilitation. But it is becoming more and more apparent that the war effort is opening a new chapter in the story of rural family labor.

To overcrowded rural areas, the new factor of high wages in defense industries has suddenly appeared as a possible alternative to continued crowding on the land and to idle family labor. Skilled labor is needed in industry. In addition to such booming trades as:

mining
building construction
saw and planning mills
furniture factories
paper, cotton, knitting mills
hand trades
turpentine factories and distilleries
fertilizer factories

which are well adapted to labor by part-time farmers, there are already extensive labor shortages in aircraft industries, machine shops, and ship building. But a break-down of newly developed job requirements shows that 45 per cent of the laborers needed must be highly skilled or professional workers, and 30 per cent must be at least semi-skilled (assemblers, erectors, drill press and machine operators).⁶

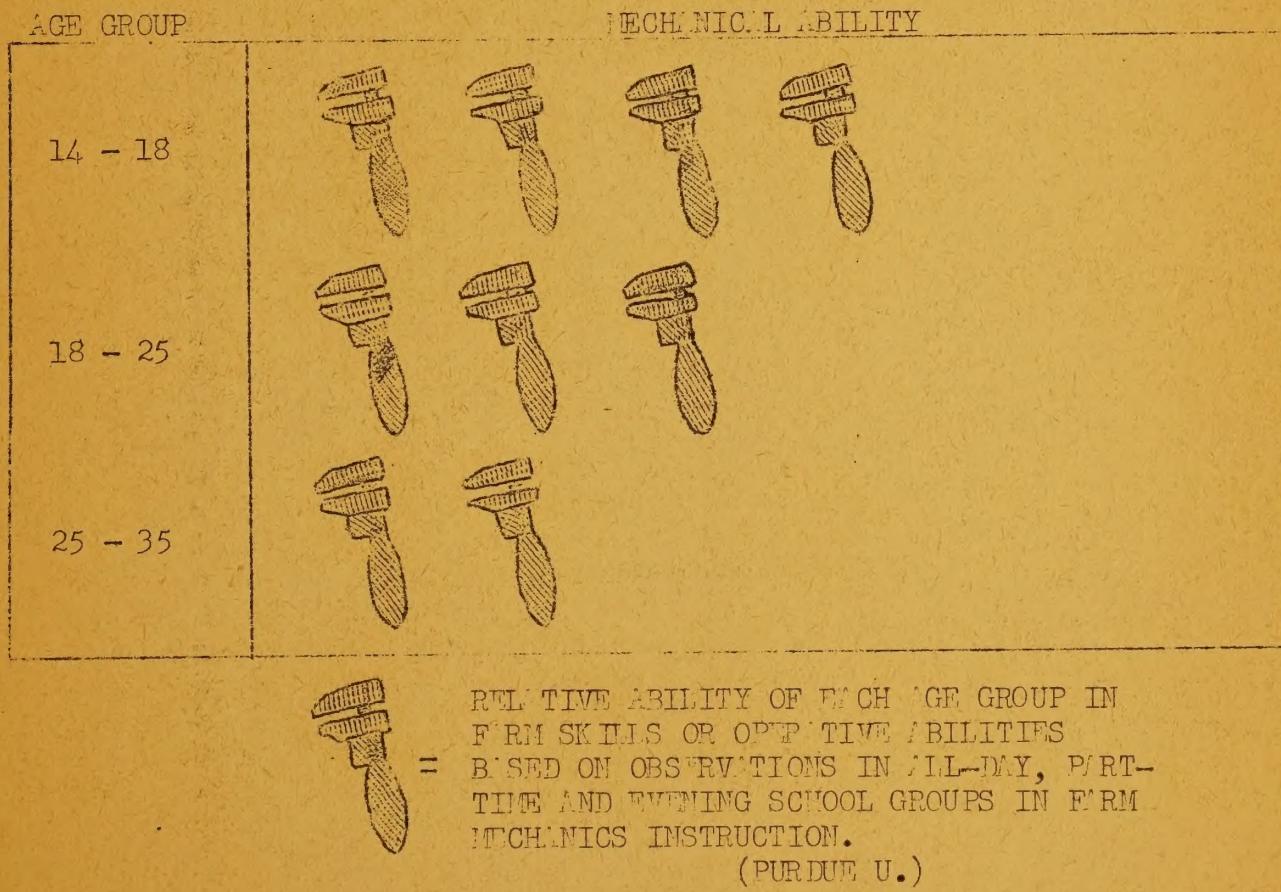
Coupled with labor shortages elsewhere, many commercial producing farmers are discovering serious "labor shortages" on their farms. Because thousands of hired men have either been absorbed by the military forces or have been employed by war industries, the farm operators back home lack experienced farm labor.

In response to intensive demand for skilled labor on all sides, many experienced farm operators in good-land areas have left their farms to work in industry or to work for other farmers. To the extent that there are more available full-time farm units, a greater opportunity of getting on better farms has been opened to poorer farmers who have adequate farm skills to succeed on full-time units.

Under a war economy, shifting rural and urban population leave job vacancies in machine shops, assembly lines, factories, farms, warehouses, and processing plants ... all potential sources of income for workers who have skills to do the job. How much of an opportunity to take advantage of this demand for labor is provided by the skills of the three out of four FSA families who never entered high school. (See Figure 11). How well equipped are they in training and education to produce on their farms, in defense areas, or in jobs that have been left open as a result of the war?

To the extent that mechanical skills, the ability to learn, and age dominate the defense labor picture, FSA families are at a distinct disadvantage. The average defense worker is less than 30 years old⁷ ... an age of considerable operative ability. The average standard FSA borrower, however, is 10 years the senior of the average defense worker;⁸ not only is the low-income farmer above the desirable age limit, but his operative ability has fallen sharply. (See Figure 3)

FIGURE 3: SKILLS OR OPERATIVE ABILITY IN FARM MECHANICS INSTRUCTION
ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS 2/



The location of vocational training courses for defense work further tends to bar the low-income farmer from defense jobs. More than three out of seven of the individuals taking such courses in 1941 took them in California and New York,¹⁰ where only three per cent of the unemployed and under-employed farmers are located.¹¹ On the other hand, 43 per cent of the low-income farmers live in Kentucky, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Louisiana, where there were less than five per cent of the persons who were taking training courses.

In other words, large reservoirs of potential labor are untapped. At the same time, there is an intensive demand for labor as a result of the war. But obstacles of skills, training, age, and immobility of a large part of the rural labor supply prevent the supply from matching the demand.

But even if defense training courses and certain types of skilled jobs are beyond the reach of the FSA family, what sort of teachers and what sort of school does the low-income farmer have to prepare him for current farm or even part-time industrial employment?

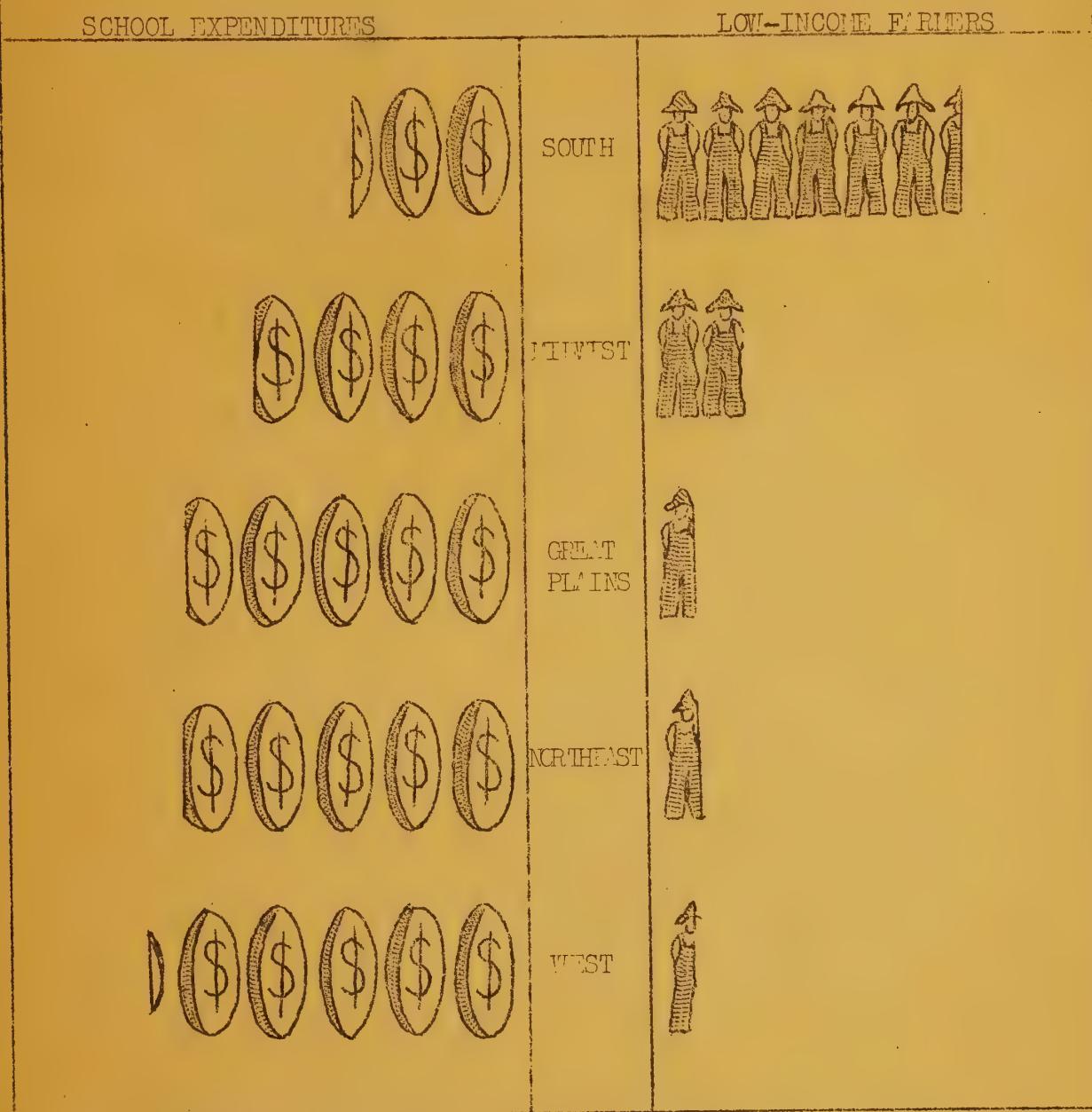
A month before the city school shuts down for summer vacations, the country school in the low-income area has already been closed. If there is only one teacher in the school, the chances are one out of four that she never got beyond high school. The odds are seven to one that she has had no more than three years of training beyond high school.¹² In 12 States, she is outnumbered by an amateur army of school board members which decides how much shall be spent for education in the school district, what the teacher shall teach, how much she shall teach, and how long she shall teach.

If her school is one of the 44,000 that have from three to seventeen pupils,¹³ she is probably untrained and inexperienced. She follows the texts. The kinds of things she teaches are severely limited. In most cases, she is either overworked or underpaid, or both.

If her school district is small and has a large population of low-income families, her school will be dilapidated, she will have little or no teaching equipment, and her pupils will get less education for the money their folks have to pay in taxes. In other words, the ability of low-income families to pay taxes is by far the greatest factor in controlling the type of training and education their children get.

For one thing, three out of four schools depend for financial support on property taxes raised within the geographical limits of their school districts. The poorer districts have the poorer schools, and the richer districts have the better schools. (See Figure 4).

FIGURE 4: RELATION OF NUMBER OF LOW-INCOME FARMERS TO EXPENDITURE FOR RURAL EDUCATION BY AREAS 14



= \$20 EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL
IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTEND-
ANCE IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

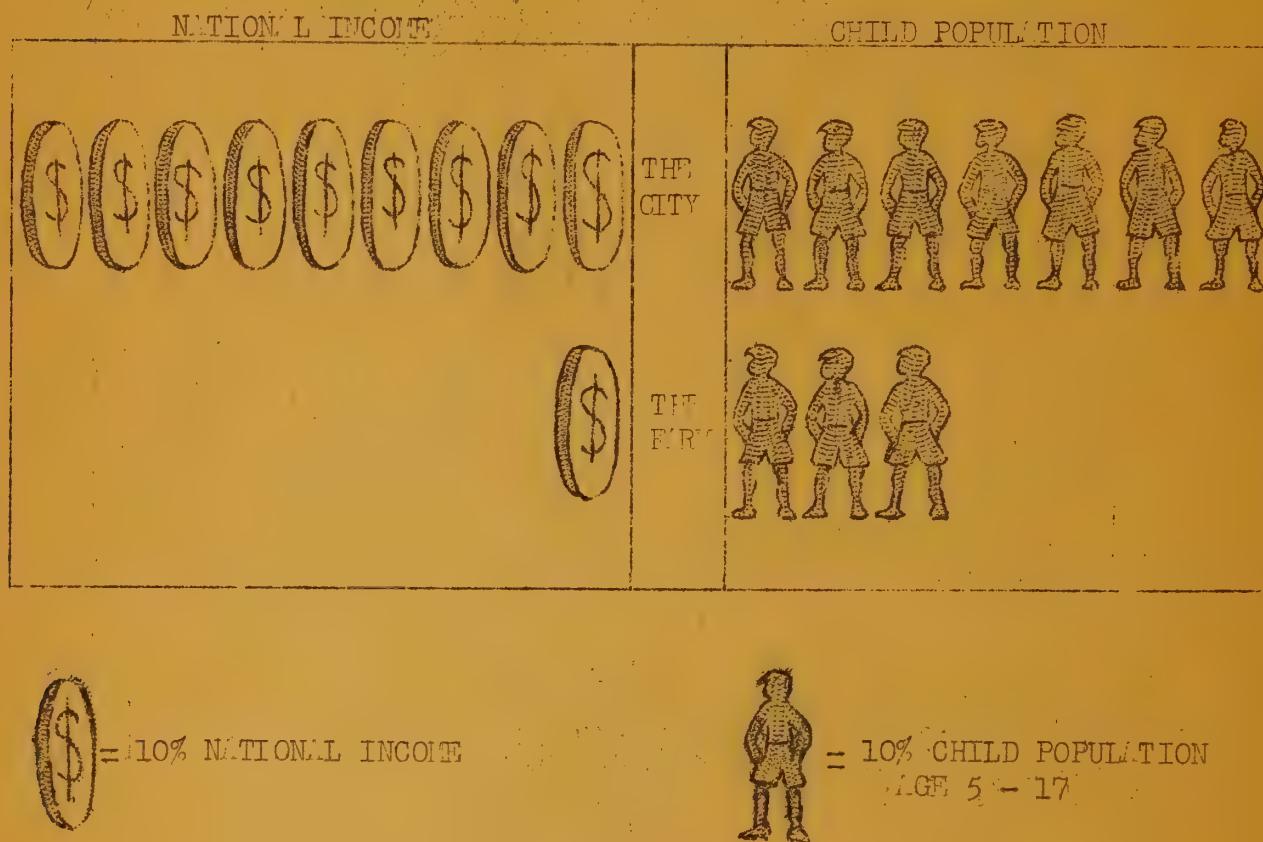


= 10% OF THE LOW-INCOME
FARMERS IN THE U. S.
= (LESS THAN \$800 GROSS
EARNED INCOME)

The richest school districts in some places could pay \$100 per child for each \$1 that the poorest districts could pay, and the poorest of all the school districts are usually in the country.¹⁵

The farm population in the United States raises better than 30 per cent of all the nation's children, and tries to educate them on less than 10 per cent of the national income. (See Figure 5)

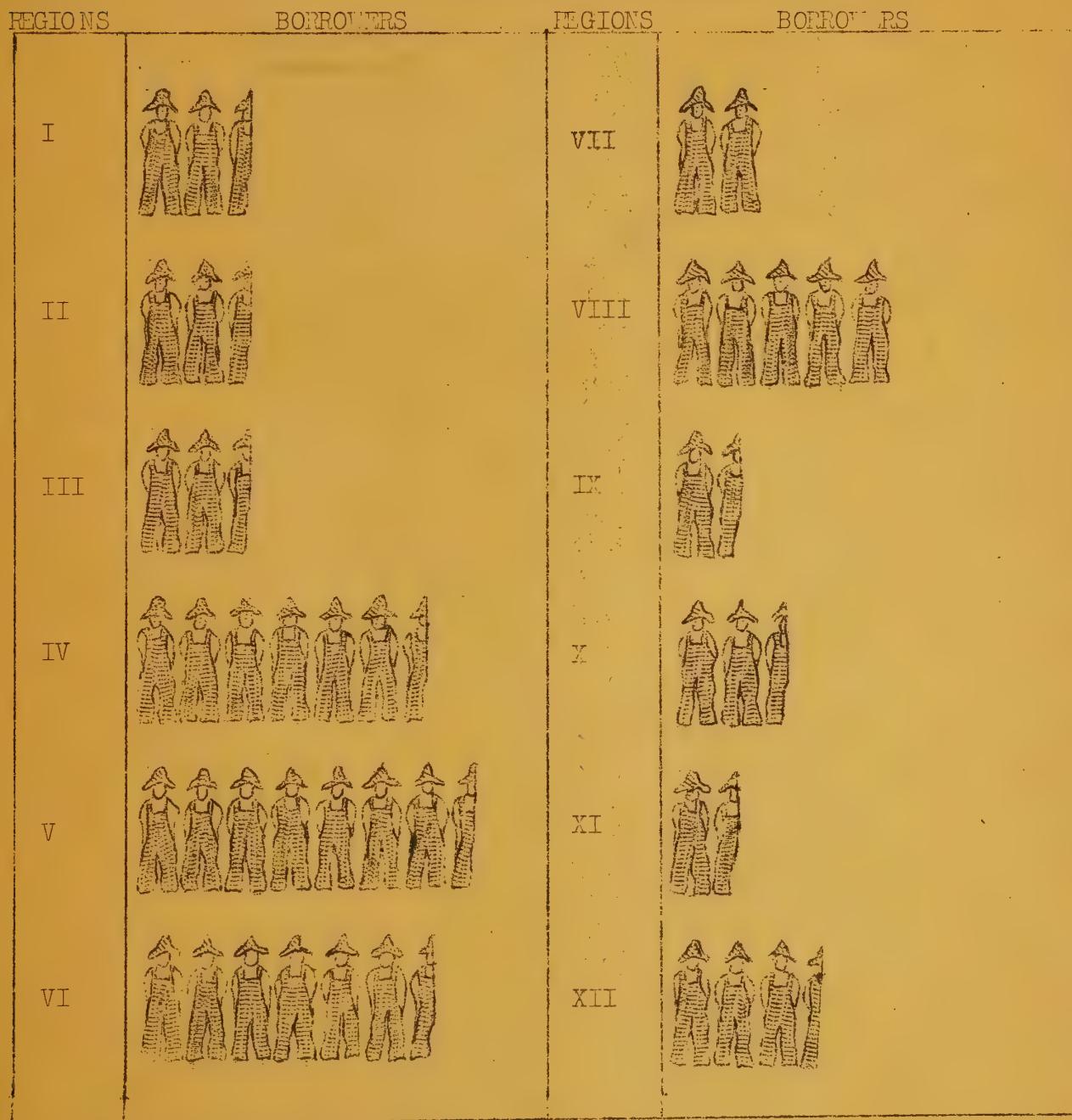
FIGURE 5: U. S. INCOME AND PROPORTION OF CHILDREN TO BE EDUCATED ¹⁶



Actually, farm children get less education because there is less money to educate them. When city schools spend a dollar on education, rural schools spend less than 50 cents,¹⁷ but rural areas have to spread their 50 cents over many more children than do the city areas with their dollar. For example, the predominantly rural Southeast has to educate more than 4,000,000 children on two per cent of the national income. On the other hand, the Northeast has 21 times as much income on which to educate only twice as many children. That means that the number of children to be educated varies inversely with the means of educating them. That is to say, where the number of children is

largest, the money available to educate them is least. As a result, there is extreme differentiation in the amount of schooling in various sections of the country, and, therefore, in FSA regions. (See Figure 6)

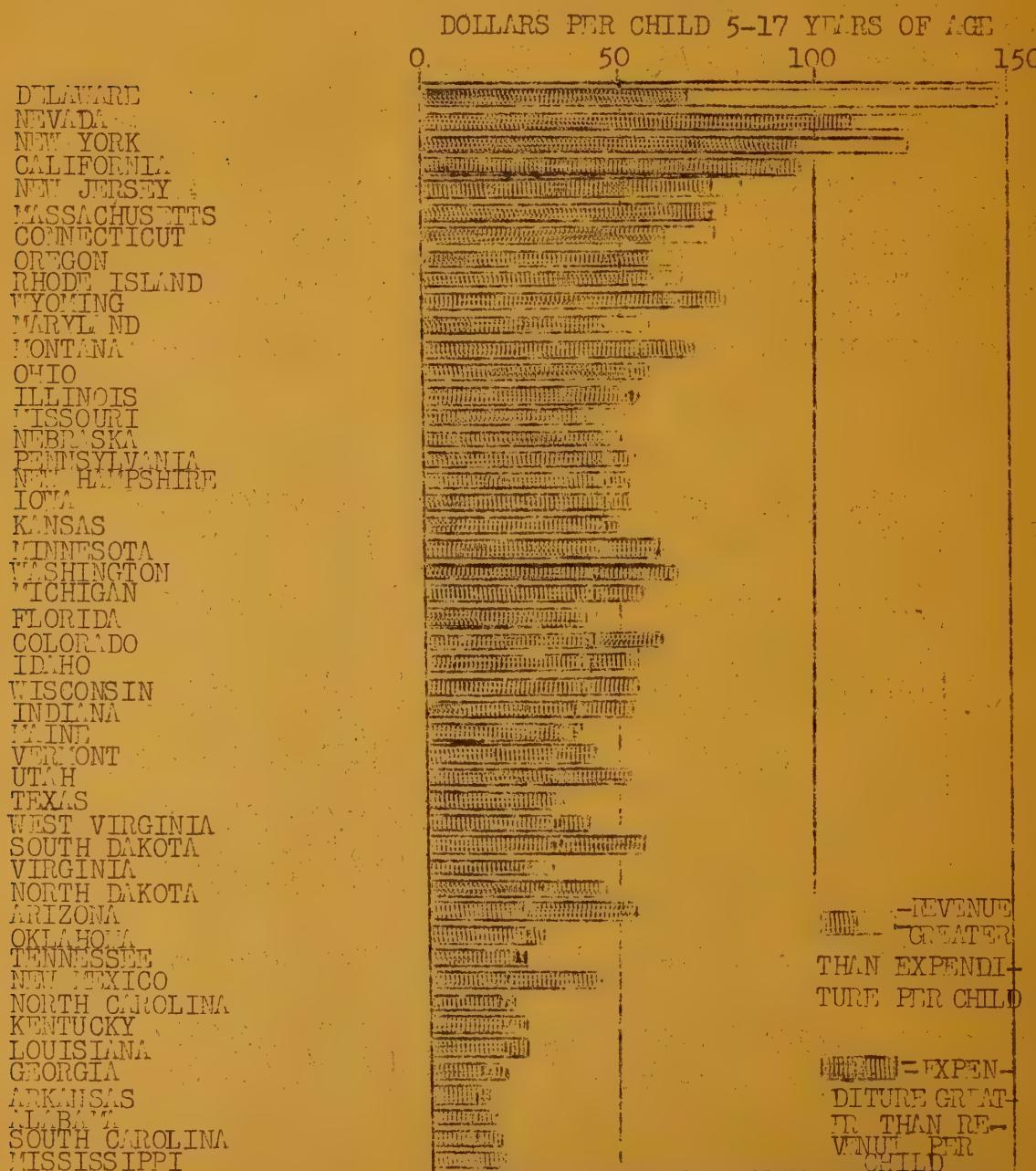
FIGURE 6: FSA FAMILY HEADS WHO HAVE LESS THAN EIGHT GRADES OF EDUCATION 18/



= 10% FSA BORROWERS IN EACH REGION

When school districts are small, the cost of maintaining the school and the teacher rises all out of proportion to the results in education. If there are both small school districts and little money to spend (the usual situation in rural areas), the results for each \$1 spent become poorer and poorer. In many cases, the low-income school districts and the poorer States try to remedy their shortcomings by taxing themselves more heavily than the wealthiest districts and the wealthiest States. (See Figure 7).

FIGURE 7: CURRENT EXPENDITURES PER CHILD OF SCHOOL AGE, 1935-36, AND ESTIMATED REVENUE AVAILABLE FOR THE EDUCATION OF EACH CHILD OF EACH STATE WHO MADE AVERAGE EFFORT, 1935-36/



In some districts in some States, the costs per classroom are 15 times as high as in others.²⁰

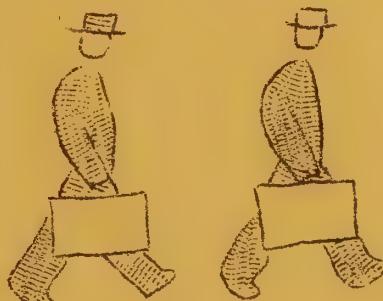
The effect of poor education in areas which raise most of the Nation's children is becoming more and more significant in terms of today's farm-to-city migration. With war offering better incomes in defense areas, more people are moving today than ever before. A decade ago, 40 per cent of the children who were living on farms back in 1920 had moved to towns and cities, and 60 per cent of them came from farms below the Mason-Dixon line. The process works from both ends because 7 out of 10 States most able to support education are not raising enough children to replace their present population without drawing on replacements from other areas.²¹ Those "other" areas are rural areas ... rural areas which supply poorly-educated and poorly-trained young people to man our factories and run our industries. By 1950, it is estimated that there will be another quarter of a million men and women available for migration from farms, and continual migration is expected from the Southeast and Rocky Mountain States where birth rates are high, from the Great Plains because of recurring drought, and from problem areas scattered throughout the United States.²²

Behind the movement of rural young folks to cities lies the lure of better income and better opportunity than could be found in the home community. Two factors seem to have a direct bearing on the desire to leave or stay in rural areas:

- (1) The amount of agricultural training
- (2) The availability of money to start farming

Among young men in five counties in Indiana,²³ for instance:

One wants to farm Two do not



But among those who have had any training in agricultural courses:

Two want to farm

One does not



Regardless of the desire to stay or leave the farm, however, the main problem is financial..... how to acquire the capital needed?

In the same communities, for each young man who is able to acquire the money needed for farming, more than three can not.



As a result, one stays on a farm, one works in a town in the area, and one leaves the area altogether.

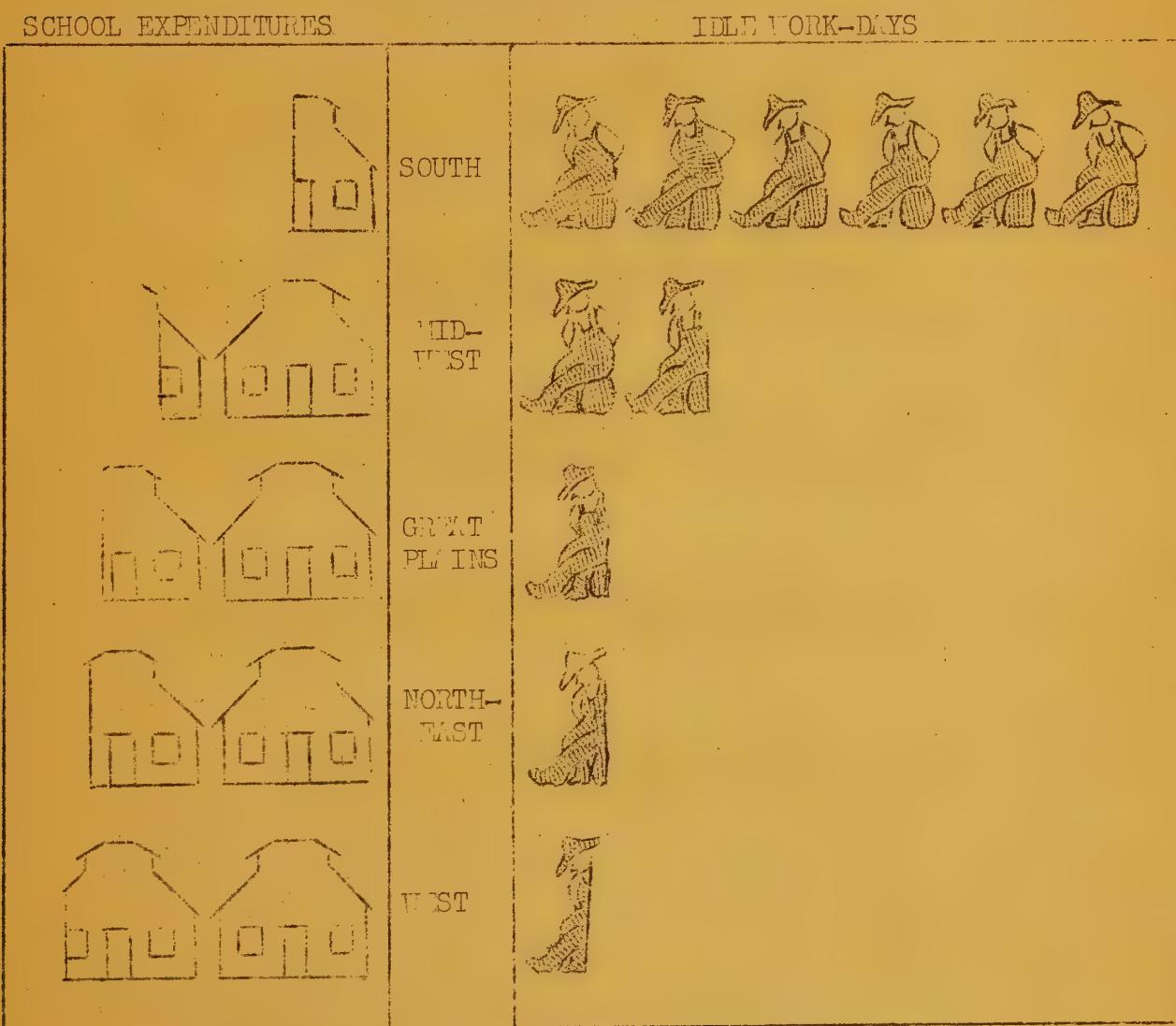


And of those who leave the area, only one out of ten gain enough capital or skills to take up farming at a future date.



But although a larger part of the problem of rural education can be expected to affect urban areas in the future, poor training in rural areas continues to limit the productive ability of low-income families who seem unable to make the necessary adjustments. Their ability to grasp the opportunity of supplementing farm income and of using their unemployed time by taking advantage of higher wages in industry, or of profiting by more favorable agricultural prices, is directly related to the amount of education or training which farm families have had. In other words, limited education tends to restrict job possibilities on and off the farm, and to lead to idle man-days. Unfortunately, opportunities for adequate education are least where unemployment on the farm is greatest. (See Figure 8)

FIGURE 8: RELATION BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL LEVELS AND INACTIVITY ON LOW-INCOME FARMERS 24



\$500 IN EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES GOING TO COVER THE SCHOOL COSTS OF EACH FSA BORROWER WHILE A PUPIL.



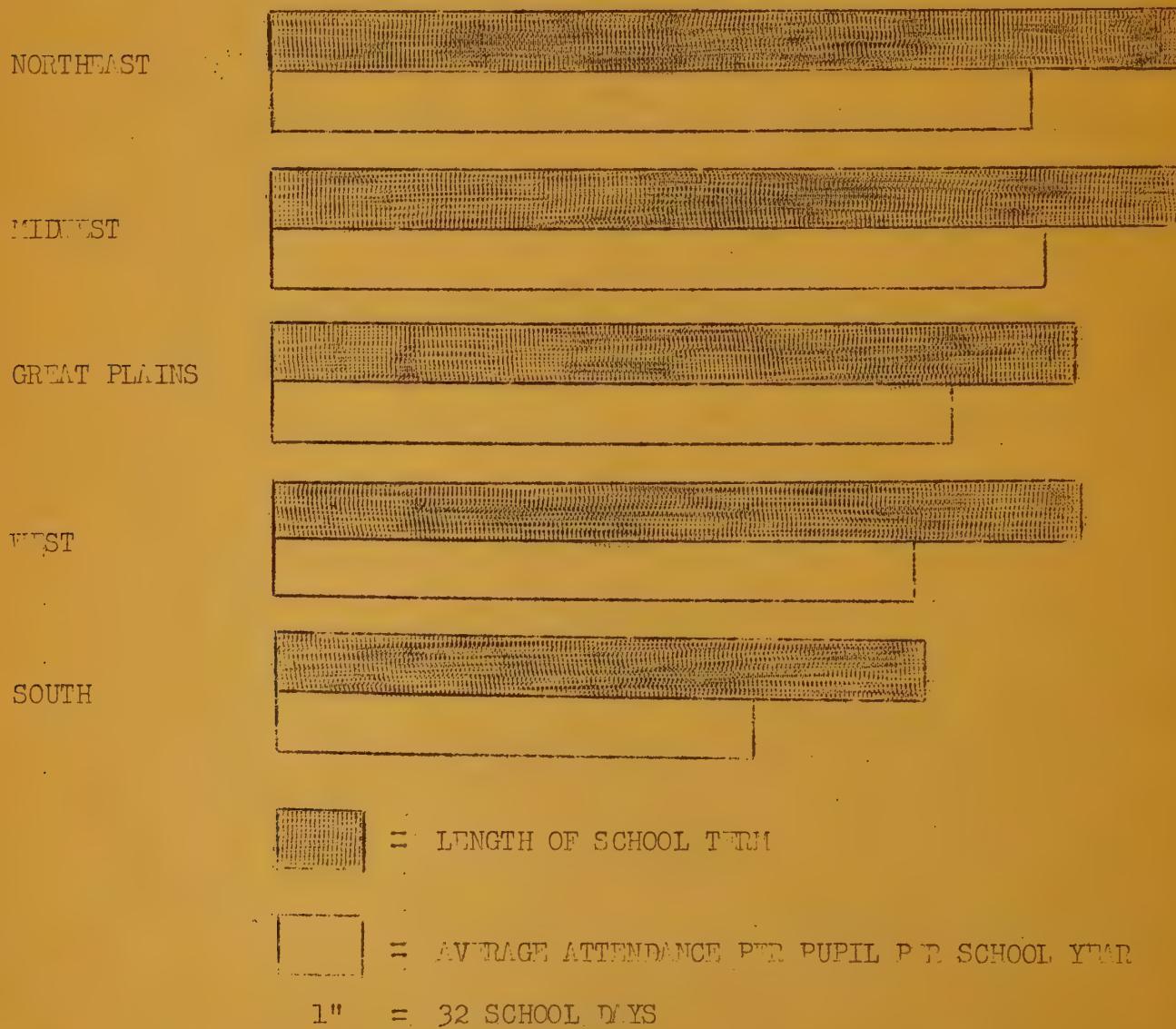
48 MILLION MAN DAYS OF FARM LABOR ON LOW INCOME FARMS = AFTER FARM NEEDS HAVE BEEN MET.

Over and above the amount of education is the quality of education ... the effectiveness of rural training in meeting rural needs. Best measurements for testing such effectiveness lie in:

- (1) The length of the school term
- (2) School attendance
- (3) The usefulness of what is taught

For every three days that children in the Northeast and Midwest attend school, children in the South go to school only two days. (See Figure 9)

FIGURE 9: LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM AND ATTENDANCE OF PUPILS BY AREAS 25/



Where cash crops require periodic hand labor, children attend school sporadically at best ... from 2 to 6 or 7 months a year ... and in such areas, schooling has rarely been adjusted or calendared to meet educational needs. In the Southeast, for example, only half the children who attend school ever get beyond the 4th grade.²⁶ The rest drop out before their education really gets started. In 1930, 800,000 children of school age were not going to school at all.²⁷

Even if rural people leave school early, how well does experience teach them the handling of farm tools and equipment and the skills they need to insure a full year's work?

Farm boys who live in the so-called "problem counties" where the gross earned farm income of their folks falls below \$600, and where farm resources, tools, and equipment are few, have only one chance out of 14 of learning to operate a tractor, one chance out of 7 of becoming familiar with automobile mechanics, and about one chance in 9 of learning to handle farm machinery.²⁸ The odds are against them simply because there are few tractors, automobiles, and farm machines available on which they could learn. But if experience cannot fill the need, how well equipped are rural schools to provide the background for successful farming or for farm skills? To what extent are rural people trained to use the few material advantages which their farms will provide?

Most courses in rural grammar schools attended by FSA children center around the 3 R's. In effect, the teaching is formal, routine, and disassociated from rural life and practical, every-day problems. The primary function of the hallowed 3 R's was originally designed to prepare a selected group for further study in high schools and colleges. In this purpose, rural education ignores the 9 out of 10 FSA borrowers who never graduate from high school (See Figure on Frontpiece).

Hackneyed and sanctified, the 3 R's have failed to provide even the most elementary things which FSA families need to know to attain a better living:

- (1) Ability to deal with numbers and figures as tools or skills in handling simple problems of farm life (not as revered mathematical abstractions).
- (2) Elementary farm management and handling of livestock.

- (3) Basic understanding of the problems of health and sanitation.
- (4) Cooking, dressmaking, and housekeeping.
- (5) Manual dexterity (in handling woods, fabrics, and simple mechanics).

As things are now, the National Resources Planning Board points out,²⁹ rural education neither stimulates interest nor meets needs, Edwin R. Embree, in reviewing the program of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, said:

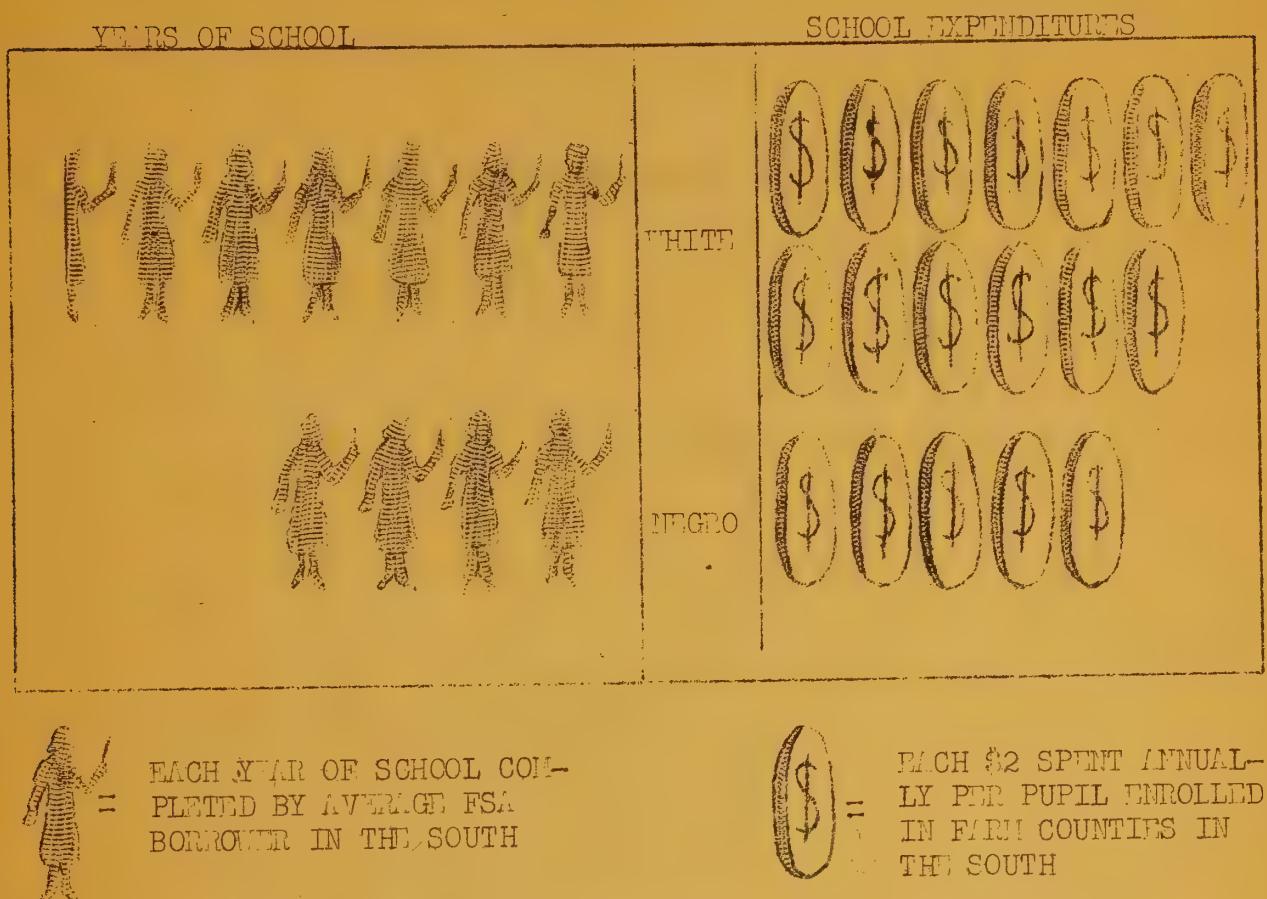
"With all due modesty, we suggest that an exact knowledge of how to manipulate corn and cows and honey bees is even more enlightening (as well as more useful) than intimate acquaintance with the vagaries of least common denominators, lists of the kings of England, or other traditional tricks of the schoolmaster's trade.... Children come to regard school as a place for reciting rather than a place for learning."

Inequality of opportunity in learning even that which the system of the 3 R's does offer can be and often does become a means of social stratification. Extreme variation of quality and quantity of training depends pretty largely on the financial ability to buy teachers, schools, and equipment. As the quantity and quality of education varies between rural economic groups, the chasm of thinking between the groups becomes wider (See Figure 4). In addition, stratification extends beyond economic and geographical limits.

Nearly one out of every ten children of school age is either near blind, crippled, hard-of-hearing, or defective in speech.³⁰ In rural areas, limited educational facilities mean that virtually nothing is being done to meet the special needs of these children. It means that they do not receive the education necessary to make themselves self-supporting. With few funds to meet their training needs, they become a burden for the rest of their lives, a continual drag on the rural community.

In the same way, Negro schools are less than half as well supported as white schools even in areas where colored families heavily outnumber white families. (See Figure 10).

FIGURE 10: AMOUNT AND EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION GOING TO NEGRO BORROWERS IN THE SOUTH 31



Beyond the type of training offered by the 3 R's, a limited number of educational programs have been developed ostensibly for rural areas; but these programs are not specifically designed for low-income farm families. Activities of land-grant colleges, for instance, are far beyond the reach of farm families who have not passed beyond grammar school (See Figure on Frontpiece). Direct basic training in home-making and in agriculture through vocational education courses are confined to upper grades and to high school, which most FSA families have never reached. Moreover, the training equipment for such courses is usually located in town school buildings largely inaccessible to back-area families because of distance or location.

From the viewpoint of financial ability to support vocational training, low-income rural areas again are at a disadvantage. Every dollar of Federal money for vocational agriculture courses must be matched by State funds with the result that such courses are located neither on the basis of need, nor on the basis of farm population. In seven of the Southern States, only about half of the needed number

of vocational agriculture schools is available.³² To the typical FSA family, the status of vocational education is doubly defective because the facilities of practical-training organizations such as Future Farmers of America or New Farmers of America are confined to the use of those who attend high schools specifically designated for vocational agriculture courses.³³

Over and above the need for on-the-spot training (rarely available in high schools) is the need for tools and equipment and for the facilities with which to learn. From this angle, Extension Service can reach directly into the homes of low-income rural families to provide supervision on land with which the farmer is familiar, but the administrative limitations within which the supervision operates exclude tools and equipment.

These, by and large, have been the main obstacles to training the low-income farmer. Because new openings and outlooks in the field of rural training were badly needed, it was natural that the comparatively large-scale entry of the Federal Government in education almost a decade ago should lead to new developments:

- Pre-primary training
- Provision for instructional materials
- Health, welfare, and recreational activities
- Educational and vocational guidance
- Transportation of pupils
- School library services
- Services for handicapped pupils
- Scholarships

Falling to rural areas were many of these advantages in addition to WPA construction and repair of school buildings, the hiring of unemployed teachers, and the establishment of CCC and NYA training shops. New approaches to the problem of rural education had become clarified and put into action.

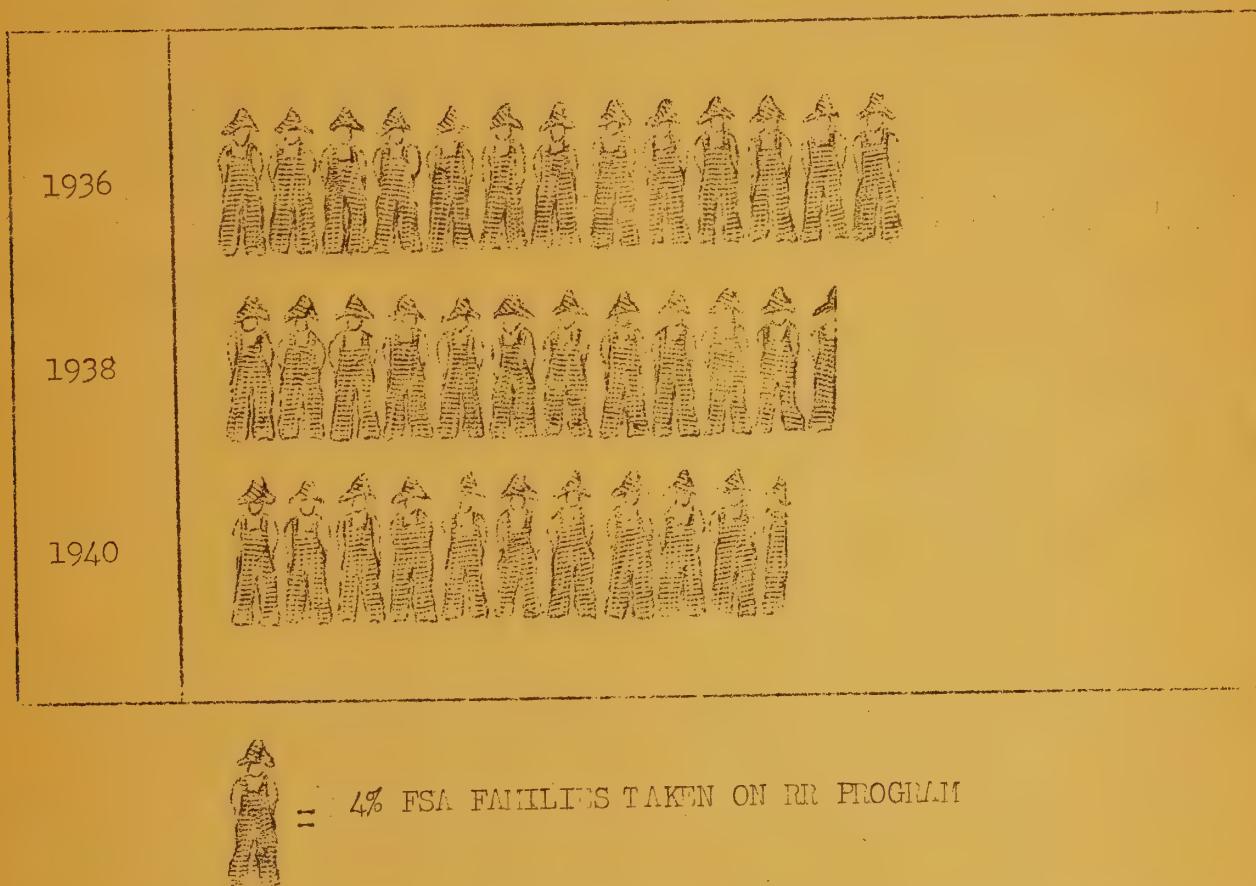
Of most significance is that even though the Federal Government spent up to \$21,000,000 in the peak years in grants for vocational education in Agriculture, home economics, and industrial trades, the total expenditures amounted to only about one-half of one per cent of all expenditures for elementary and secondary education.³⁴

In rural low-income areas, even at the height of government expenditures for education, WPA assistance in constructing and repairing school buildings could not gain full momentum because funds could not be matched. As war progresses, the net effect of Federal assistance in training rural families is falling. WPA has been greatly restricted. NYA shops have been reduced or converted to

direct war production. This condition accentuates the lack of educational and training facilities in rural back-areas.

At the same time that Federal aid in rural education has been cut down, FSA has been gradually limiting its RR program to families who have more education rather than to those who have less.

FIGURE 11: FAMILIES WITH LESS THAN EIGHT GRADES OF EDUCATION WHEN ACCEPTED ON RR PROGRAM 35/



That this policy can be justified on the ground that the educational levels of low-income farm families have miraculously improved does not seem reasonable in view of the facts. Moreover, a conscious policy of selecting families with better training and schooling can hardly remedy the inability of other low-income families to use their labor skilfully.

As it affects the RR Supervisor, the education of the low-income farmer is important so long as it affects his ability to understand the supervisor's suggestions.

If the FSA farmer lacks the educational background to grasp the full meaning of suggestions passed on to him during the occasional visits which the RR program provides, the net results of supervision and farm visits are drained off and wasted. Few, if any, schools attended by FSA families have geared their classes to the training that low-income farmers will need if they are to be able to respond to occasional supervision:

Farm mechanics related to repair and maintenance
on the farm

Functional understanding of livestock and soils.

Production of rudimentary tools and useful
articles.

Ability to use native resources to make or re-
place articles which families cannot buy.

Consumer education, budgeting, home economics,
financial transactions.

Elementary health and sanitation needs.

How extensive are educational programs which teach rural people these things? Do these programs help low-income farmers to learn-by-doing and to learn by working under conditions similar to those which actually exist in the community? Although Federal aid in experimental education has tapered off, it has shown in a dramatic way the need for:

- (1) Rural community schools and rural training shops.
- (2) Full-time and part-time training in mechanical operations.
- (3) Basic work-habits and skills to enable low-income farmers to handle mechanics and farm operations with a minimum amount of supervision.
- (4) Sufficient educational background to insure responsiveness to general supervision.

Because of the extreme variation in the needs for training, however, any rigid approach to the problem of adjusting training to rural needs is bound to fall wide of the mark. Individual needs, interests, abilities, and attitudes require that enough individual supervision be

geared in with rural training to make the business of learning both meaningful and useful. In this connection, FSA with its individual farm and home plans and its intimate knowledge of individual farm families may be in a unique position to pave the way for further progress in helping farm people to use their family labor to its greatest advantage. Not all farmers will be able to become skilful in all the jobs which they could profit by knowing, but it would help to lay the groundwork for a better understanding of farming and a more satisfactory response to the type of supervision which RR can offer if farmers were equipped with skills in:

Tool fitting, tool sharpening, handle fitting
Harness repair
Woodworking and farm carpentry, construction work
Working with cold metal, soldering, saw-fitting
Rope-work
Elementary plumbing and electricity
Forge work
Handling concrete
Farm drainage
Field machinery repairing

.

The foregoing is intended to be an interpretation of education and training as it affects FSA families and their ability to produce. With their present land resources, low-income farm families have the potential productive capacity to increase the nation's food output substantially. It has been estimated that the following proportions of the increases in war food production called for in 1942³⁶ could be produced by low-income farmers:

16 per cent of the milk increase
35 per cent of the pork and lard increase
40 per cent of the egg increase
12 per cent of the peanut increase
6 per cent of the soybean increase
17 per cent of the sugar beet increase
46 per cent of the tomato increase
97 per cent of the garden products increase

But before the labor of FSA families can be more fully utilized, tools and equipment and land resources must be integrated by the directive ability of trained supervisors who can give training in the primary skills of agriculture, livestock handling, and farm mechanics in conveniently located, adequately-equipped workshops.

Turning the asset of family labor to direct agricultural production is a very real possibility. It calls for action in developing appropriate steps to build a training base under FSA families so that their greatest potential asset can become a productive reality.

Harry G. Clement

SOURCE OF DATA

Figure on Frontpiece: Administrative Memorandum #3 from BAE to FSA, "Education of Borrowers" (Figure refers to borrowers coming on the RR program between 3-1-34 and 2-28-34. See Appendix, Columns 1 and 2 for State by State breakdown of data.)

FOOTNOTES

1. 1940 Census. See Appendix Column 3 for State by State breakdown of data.
2. "After Defense...What?" National Resources Planning Board, August 1941.
3. "A Statement of the Role of Low-Income Farm Families in the War Effort", by James G. Maddox, Feb. 13, 1942.
4. 1940 Census; and "Statement on Two Suggested Solutions for Problem of Farm Unemployment and Under-Employment," by R. C. Smith, BAE, May 24, 1940. See Appendix Column 4 for State by State breakdown of data.
5. Changes in the Number and Per cent of Low-Income Farms in the United States, 1929 to 1939:

Year	Under \$250		Under \$600	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1929	395,992	6.6	1,679,967	28.0
1939	1,156,001	19.2	2,841,127	47.6

6. Estimates by the U. S. Employment Service indicate that from April, 1941, to April, 1942, there will be needed more than 91,000 more professional workers; 550,900 more skilled workers, 539,000 more workers to fill semi-skilled occupations, and 227,500 more workers who are unskilled.
7. "Migration Studies in Defense Centers," Division of Research, WPA, Federal Works Agency.
8. Administrative Memorandum #8, BAE to FSA, December 26, 1941, "Age of Borrowers".
9. "Organization and Content for Effective Instruction in Farm Mechanics," by I. G. Morrison, Purdue University, March 28, 1939.
10. Reports and Analysis Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.
11. As cited above, R. C. Smith.
12. Report to the President of the United States, "Federal Government and Education," by the Advisory Committee on Education, February, 1938.
13. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education.
14. 1940 Census; and Federal Security Agency, U. S. Department of Education. See Appendix, Column 5 for State by State breakdown of data.
15. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education.
16. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education.

17. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education: "In 1935-36, city school systems spent an average of \$108 that year for each child in attendance; rural schools spent an average of \$67".
18. As cited above, Administrative Memorandum #3, BAE to FSA
19. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education
20. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education
21. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education
22. "Problems of a Changing Population," National Resources Committee, May, 1938.
23. "Rural Youth in Southern Indiana," Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940.
24. As cited above, R. C. Smith; and U. S. Department of Education together with Administrative Memorandum #3 from BAE to FSA.
25. As cited above, "Problems of a Changing Population".
26. "Rural Manpower and War Production," Conrad Taeuber, BAE, February 13, 1942.
27. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education.
28. As cited above, Conrad Taeuber: "The Farms of these counties (Problem counties) reported only seven per cent of the tractors and 13 per cent of the automobiles on farms in 1940. And altogether, the farms in these counties reported only 11 per cent of the farm machinery expense of all farmers in 1939.
29. As cited above, "Problems of a Changing Population."
30. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education.
31. Charles S. Johnson, "Statistical Atlas of Southern Counties", 1942; and 1940 RR Family Progress Reports for FSA Regions IV, V, VI, AND VIII.
32. "Rural Youth, Their Situation and Prospects," WPA, Division of Social Research.
33. As cited above, "Rural Youth"
34. As cited above, Advisory Committee on Education: "Expenditures for public elementary and secondary education are more than two billion dollars a year."
35. "Trend in Family Selection for the Rural Rehabilitation Program, 1935-40," Planning and Analysis Report.
36. As cited above, J. G. Maddox

Appendix

Idle Man-Power, Number of Low-Income Farmers and
Cost and Extent of Education of RR Borrowers, by States

Region	Percent with less than fourth grade education	Education of RR borrowers 4/	Number 2/ of farmers below \$800 gross income	Idle 1/ man-power (Total man-days available)	Current ex- 3/ per pupil in average daily attendance
U.S.					
Total			3,421,357	454,520	
Reg. I					
Conn.	5	14	10,893	1,293	102
Dela.	4	63	4,075	327	109
Me.	11	29	22,746	2,577	57
Md.	10	71	20,317	1,750	66
Mass.	13	25	16,366	2,509	116
N. H.	1	18	9,494	1,204	96
N. J.	11	41	9,019	2,129	124
N. Y.	6	27	60,905	7,163	144
Pa.	3	27	86,690	12,868	78
R. I.	10	26	1,262	343	81
Vt.	1	22	9,709	799	74
Reg. II					
Mich.	6	30	94,104	10,757	61
Minn.	2	25	60,144	8,496	76
Wis.	4	33	56,385	8,682	80
Reg. III					
Ill.	4	27	73,475	9,746	114
Ind.	4	25	89,009	8,887	71
Io.	1	16	41,177	3,900	84
Mo.	5	30	150,596	20,846	55
Ohio	3	23	113,915	20,012	78
Reg. IV					
Ky.	16	57	188,032	27,352	36
N. C.	23	80	152,019	16,342	43
Tenn.	14	60	188,017	19,379	38
Va.	23	85	121,012	11,166	33
W. Va.	10	52	82,606	12,282	62
Reg. V					
Ala.	32	82	194,491	26,610	31
Fla.	21	65	42,432	5,022	68
Ga.	27	81	150,278	19,656	32
S. C.	37	85	91,328	14,738	37
Reg. VI					
Ark.	14	62	158,602	24,186	31
La.	39	83	115,435	14,870	50
Miss.	18	61	239,260	25,188	25
Reg. VII					
Kan.	2	20	69,549	7,503	78
Neb.	3	25	46,787	4,800	69
N. D.	7	36	24,828	5,079	81
S. D.	2	21	27,277	5,570	100

Region and state	Education of RR borrowers 4/	Percent with less than fourth grade education	Number 2/ of farmers below \$300 gross earned income	Idle 1/ man-power (Total man-days) available	Current ex- 3/ pence & interest per pupil in average daily attendance
Reg. VIII :					
Okla.	10	47	111,255	23,667	66
Texas	12	62	254,096	34,157	69
N. M.	21	55	22,844	3,626	75
Reg. IX :					
Ariz.	2	18	11,962	767	114
Calif.	5	21	49,019	5,892	151
Nev.	4	22	1,443	125	166
Utah	1	10	11,412	1,723	75
Reg. X :					
Colo.	4	20	22,560	3,579	90
Mont.	3	24	15,910	4,030	109
Wyo.	3	19	5,113	752	118
Reg. XI :					
Idaho	1	12	15,225	2,007	82
Ore.	1	12	32,664	3,830	87
Wash.	2	18	45,620	6,334	113

1/ Smith, R. C., "A Statement of Two Suggested Solutions for the Problem of Farm Unemployment and Underemployment," presented before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

2/ 1940 U. S. Census of Agriculture.

3/ Annual Report, Dept. of Education, Fed. Sec. Agency, For all centers of 2500 or less, 1937-'38.

4/ Annual Family Progress Report of RR Borrowers for 1941.

